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ABSTRACT

This module discusses the theory and practice of school improvement and outlines a nine-step systematic problem-solving process for developing an action plan addressing school improvement goals. The first section describes a general model for the study of the school as a social system, as developed by Getzels and Thelen (1960). The second section discusses the appropriate use of knowledge from the behavioral sciences in developing more effective schools. Four basic theoretical models are reviewed: Maslow's Need Hierarchy, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, McGregor's Theory X and Y, and Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid Analysis. The third section then presents the nine steps to systematic problem-solving: (1) defining the problem area, (2) identifying the present level, (3) identifying the desired level, (4) reevaluating the problem in light of the discrepancy between present and desired levels, (5) identifying the possible causes that have led to the present situation, (6) using consensus to select those causes that seem most likely, (7) identifying possible solutions, (8) evaluating each solution, and (9) formulating a specific, detailed plan of action. The fourth section lists the advantages and disadvantages of five approaches to conflict management: competition, accommodation, avoidance, compromise, and collaboration. Appended are participant worksheets for viewing a film, "Managing Conflict," available from the Minnesota Department of Education, a chart of the model for conflict management, and grid sheet for systematic problem-solving. (TE)

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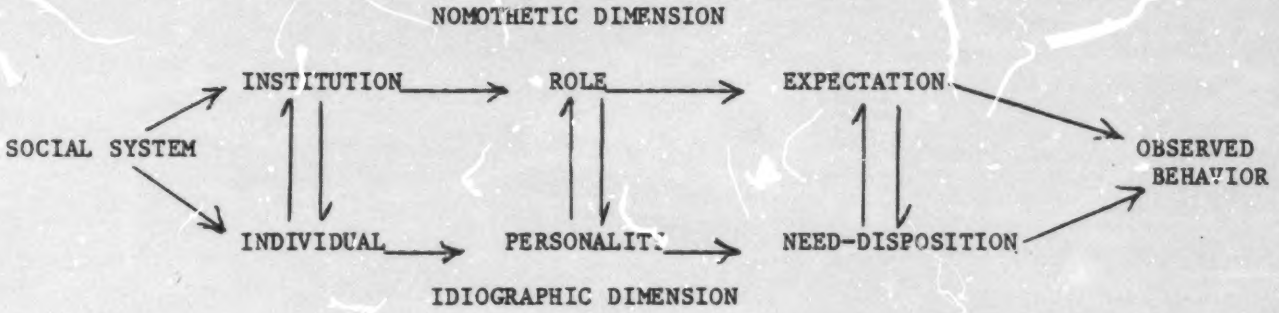
INTRODUCTION

This module outlines a nine-step systematic problem solving process to develop an action plan for addressing school improvement goals. As schools become involved in problem solving, it is inevitable that conflict will be experienced. Therefore, this material will also present basic strategies for dealing with conflict.

THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM

As described by Getzels and Thelen in the 1960 N.S.S.E. Yearbook, the school, like many organizations is a social system. It is a system which has two basic dimensions operating -- the Nomothetic Dimension and the Idiographic Dimension. These dimensions are observable and understandable and persons who are striving to improve their organizations and make them more effective need to be fully aware of the dynamics of these organizational components.

General Model For The Study Of The School As A Social System



Jacob W. Getzels and Herbert A. Thelen, "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System," The Dynamics of Instructional Groups, N.S.S.E. Yearbook LIX, No. 2 (Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1960), p. 69.

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Figure No. 1

The Nomothetic Dimension of the system contains the "normative" elements of the institution, the roles of the institution, and the expectations of the prescribed roles of the institution. Meanwhile, the Idiographic Dimension contains those observable elements of the individuals within that institution, the personality of those individuals as they fulfill the roles of the institution, and the need-dispositions of those individuals as they attempt to meet the expectations of their roles within the institution.

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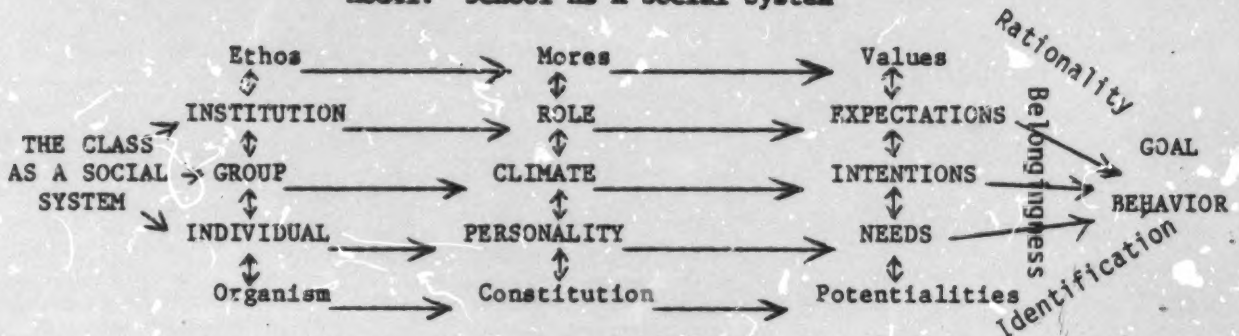
Model: School As A Social System



Jacob W. Getzels and Herbert A. Thelen, "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System," The Dynamics of Instructional Groups, N.S.S.E. Yearbook LLX, No. 2 (Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1960), p. 80.

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Figure No. 2

The elements of the Nomothetic Dimension give rationality to the organization and establish a value system with certain 'mores' for the roles in the institution, while the elements of the Idiographic Dimension, properly utilized, contain all of the human potentialities to make the system work effectively. The more congruent the elements of the Idiographic Dimension are with the elements of the Nomothetic Dimension the greater the feeling of belonging and ownership by the individuals working in the institution.

BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE KNOWLEDGE AND ITS APPROPRIATE UTILIZATION IN DEVELOPING MORE EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

Realizing that these organizational and individual characteristics exist in educational institutions, it becomes important to review our knowledge of organizational and behavioral science theories and research as we look at developing more effective schools. Organizational development theories clearly have identified the fact that every organization has three basic needs and consequently should have three basic goals.

All organizations, if they are to be truly viable, need to (1) maintain their stability, (2) be self-correcting if activities go astray, and (3) provide for growth. Based on these three general needs, all organizations, and particularly educational agencies, need to then establish three sets of goals - regular/routine goals, problem solving goals, and innovative goals. It is necessary to be able to handle the routine and regular activities with efficiency and effectiveness. Without regular goals, there is no control, no direction, and no basis for noting the development of problems before they become literally uncontrollable. We also need a systematic process for predicting and solving potential problems. Just as there are hemophilac people, there are hemophilac organizations. Unable to be self-correcting or to heal themselves, they literally bleed to death. But the real pay-off comes in the third goal area - innovation. This is where the organization stops reacting to the past and begins acting upon the future - causing things to happen instead of watching them happen.

Thus, taking this needs/goals model and applying it to education, it becomes evident that our regular goal is instruction and we need to continuously address teaching skills development. In addition, research has shown us that certain organizational characteristics also affect instruction and we need to also continuously address these if we wish to develop more effective schools.

Some have said our regular goal has gone astray. If this be the case we are in the problem-solving mode and we need to apply systematic problem-solving techniques for school improvement goals. In doing this, we will be revitalizing our maturing work force through self-renewal activities. Such a holistic model based on organizational needs would thus address continuing (regular), problem-solving, and innovative goals.

With this focus in mind, a brief review of behavioral science knowledge available to us will be presented, namely:

1. Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy
2. Frederick Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory
3. Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Y
4. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid Analysis

1. Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs"

In the late 1950s Abraham Maslow, who was then a Professor in the Department of Psychology at Brandies University and past President of the American Psychological Association, developed a systematic theory of human motivation, which has come to be known as the "Hierarchy of Needs" theory.

Basically this theory says:

(a) Every individual is goal-seeking from the beginning of life to its end.

(b) Any action a person takes to reach a goal is a drive and the acting out of a drive is seen as evidence of motivation to reach a goal.

(c) Thus goals can be converted to a set of needs; a person is motivated to reach a certain goal because that person has an intentionally generated need to reach it.

(d) These human needs can be categorized and ranked into a conceptual hierarchy, beginning with the most primitive and urgent human needs and ranging upward to the apex of the hierarchy, self- actualization.

Maslow identified the primary breakdown as follows in his "Hierarchy of Needs":

- need for self-actualization
- need for esteem
- need for belongingness and love
- safety needs
- physiological needs

The physiological needs refer to food, warmth, shelter, elimination, water, sleep, sexual fulfillment, and other bodily needs.

The safety needs include actual physical safety, as well as a feeling of being safe from injury, both physical and emotional; therefore a feeling of emotional security as well as a feeling of freedom from illness would be included under safety needs.

The need for belongingness and love represents the first social need. Physiological and safety needs are centered around the individual's own person. The need to have love and belongingness is the need for other people. It is the need to feel a part of a group or the need to belong to and with someone else. It implies the need both to give and to receive love.

The need for esteem is based on the belief that a person has a basic need for self-respect and the esteem of others (except in extreme pathology). The need for esteem is divided into two sub sets: first, there is the need for feeling a personal worth, adequacy, and competency; and secondly, there is the need for respect, admiration, recognition, and status in the eyes of others.

The need for self-actualization is a more difficult concept to describe. Self-actualization is the process whereby one realizes the real self and works toward the expression of the self by becoming what one is capable of becoming. In other words, self-actualization is the process of making actual the person's perception of his/her "self."

Maslow posits that these needs occur in a hierarchy of preeminence throughout a person's development and maturation. The graphic model of steps is used to underscore the ascending occurrence of each need. Of more significance, the hierarchy underscores the fundamental point that until one need is fulfilled, a person's behavior is not motivated by the next, higher level, need. For example, if the physiological needs are not taken care of, a person isn't concerned with the safety. And until the physiological and safety needs are both fulfilled, the person isn't particularly interested in fulfilling the need for love.

A person isn't concerned with a higher level need until the lower level needs are satisfied and form a base for the next higher level. By the same token, once a need is satisfied, it no longer motivates (a hungry person is motivated toward food, but once well fed, the person is no longer motivated to strive for food). The implications of the maxim, "a satisfied need is no longer a motivator of behavior," are probably among the most intriguing outgrowths of the need/motivation theory.

Maslow assumes that just as the needs appear in sequence as a person grows from infancy to adulthood, the pattern may be repeated as the person encounters new experiences at various times in life. For example, a person normally first seeks companionship, affection, and love through identification with parents and immediate family. But the pattern is repeated throughout the lifetime in a myriad of experiences. From the standpoint of motivation, however, Maslow's theory assumes that individuals can be characterized as being primarily at an observable level at a given time or in a given set of circumstances.

The fulfillment of the human needs as outlined in Maslow's hierarchy are held to be universal and applicable, at least in the lower levels, to all persons. Maslow's need theory postulates that all human beings have the capacity to climb up the motivational hierarchy, and the ever-upward reaching of a person is seen as evidence of emotional maturity. However, Maslow cautions that there are persons who never grow beyond certain levels and whose total life style is geared to the satisfaction of lower level needs. To him, such cases represent immaturity, stunted growth, or neurosis. In fact, he calls the first four needs deficit needs because their fulfillment, he holds, is so much a part of the natural development of a normal personality that they are stimulated only in their absence or deficit. That is, one strives for fulfillment of each successive level of the first four steps of the hierarchy because of lack of food, lack of safety, lack of love, and lack of esteem.

Self-actualization, however, far from being a deficit need, is labeled a growth need. This implies that the person who has reached this summit has already taken care of the deficit needs and is in that state of psychological health where one begins the process of self-realization or becoming what one is capable of becoming. Not only is this mature individual driven to become what one can become, one has an inner compulsion to integrate the interests, talents, and abilities to the point that one works toward becoming what one must become. The determinants here are the individual's own peculiar set of potentialities and the internally defined goals one sets for one self.

The self-actualizing person, as Maslow sees him/her, freed from the externally imposed deficit needs, is now ready to explore the heretofore untried possibilities of the true self. With this freedom, the self-actualizing person is characterized as spontaneous, creative, and capable of achieving immense satisfaction from doing the thing or things that represent the realization of his/her capabilities. Because of the uniqueness of each person, the form or content of self-actualizing satisfactions are seen as almost entirely internal.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy clearly points out that lower level needs of individuals, the "basic" and "safety" needs, are fairly well satisfied in the teaching force with increasing concern for the "social," "esteem" and "self-actualization" being displayed by teachers. However, the message for management is that while collective bargaining addresses the lower level needs to varying degrees, management must create conditions allowing for higher level needs attainment by teachers.

2. Herzberg's "Motivation-hygiene" Theory

Combining Maslow's theory with Herzberg's research on job satisfaction reemphasizes the need for management to address the organizational and individual conditions which would allow for increased motivational opportunities through the "work itself", "growth", "responsibility", "achievements", and "advancements". Herzberg has clearly identified the hygienic factors by "pay and fringes", "working conditions", "supervision", and "policy" which are usually dissatisfiers for people.

The motivation-hygiene theory grew out of research on the job attitudes (or job opinions) of 200 accountants and engineers, who were interviewed individually by Herzberg and his colleagues. The research design was an extremely simple one, built around the questions: "Can you describe, in detail, when you felt exceptionally good about jor job?" and "Can you describe, in detail, when you felt exceptionally bad about your job?"

Analyses of the responses showed that the subjects most often mentioned job experiences or factors related to a good feeling about the job in terms of the job content. These were categorized as content factors. Factors or experiences mentioned in connection with a bad feeling about the job were most often related to the surrounding or peripheral aspects of the job, and they were categorized as context factors.

Herzberg classified the job content factors as satisfiers, or those factors giving personal satisfaction. The context factors were called dissatisfiers.

The most significant finding was that rarely were the same kinds of factors named in connection with both good and bad work experiences; in fact, they appeared to be separate and distinct kinds of experiences. Herzberg found, for example, that the opposite of satisfaction on the job is not dissatisfaction; instead it is no satisfaction. Conversely, the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction, rather than satisfaction. Because something doesn't cause dissatisfaction, it doesn't follow that it causes satisfaction. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are discrete feelings, not polar extremes on a continuum. Because his model postulates two separate kinds of variables - one set of factors that satisfy, and a second set of factors that dissatisfy - it is often called the "Herzberg Two-Factor Theory".

Herzberg analyzed and classified the job content factors or satisfying experiences as follows:

Satisfiers:

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Work itself
- Responsibility
- Advancement
- Growth

He categorized the context or environmental factors causing dissatisfaction to include:

Dissatisfiers

- Company policy and administration
- Supervision
- Working conditions
- Interpersonal relations (with superiors, subordinates, and peers)
- Salary
- Job security
- Personal life

Definition of Factors

These satisfying and dissatisfying factors may generally be called categorizations or interpretations of actual experiences reported by the respondents. For clarification, Herzberg gives examples of real experiences as they fit into the categories:

Achievement - Achievement refers to the personal satisfaction of completing a job, solving problems, seeing the results of one's efforts.

Recognition - As a satisfier, recognition is in terms of a job well done or personal accomplishment, as contrasted with general recognition in a "human relations" sense, which is categorized under interpersonal relations.

Work Itself - The actual content of the job and its positive or negative effect upon the employee is a central feature of the analysis, whether the job be characterized as interesting or boring, varied or routine, creative or stultifying, excessively easy or excessively difficult, challenging or nondemanding.

Responsibility - Both responsibility and authority in relation to the job are included here. Specifically, "responsibility" refers to the employee's control over his own job, or to his being given responsibility for the work of others. This factor is different from the consideration of whether or not there is a gap between a person's authority and the authority he needs to carry out his job responsibilities. When this gap was reported, Herzberg classified it under "company policy and administration," on the assumption that the discrepancy was evidence of poor management.

Advancement - Responses grouped under advancement are restricted to actual change upward in status. In cases where a transfer or job change involves increased opportunity for responsibility, but with no accompanying change in status, the responses were grouped under "responsibility."

Growth - Responses under "growth" include actual learning of new skills, with greater possibility of advancement within the current occupational speciality or in others, as well as possible growth. In the "possible" growth column Herzberg listed responses not only indicating immediate growth in the job (e.g., a craftsman's becoming a draftsman), but possibilities for future growth as a result of the immediate growth (e.g., the same craftsman's move to draftsman may open the door to his eventually becoming a design engineer). In the same line of reasoning, "negative" possibilities of growth were weighed (e.g., lack of formal education as a barrier to future growth).

Company Policy and Administration - Experiences relating to some over-all aspect of the company (as contrasted with supervisor-subordinate relations) were listed in the category. Those include responses reflecting feelings about the adequacy or inadequacy of company organization and management; for example, lines of communication so confused that an employee does not know for whom he is actually working; or is not given adequate authority to complete his task, etc.

Supervision - Generally this category refers only to the competency or technical ability of supervision, as contrasted with interpersonal relations. Factors listed under "supervision" include: the supervisor's willingness or unwillingness to teach or to delegate responsibility, fairness versus unfairness, and the supervisor's knowledge of his job.

Working Conditions - These responses have to do with the physical environment of the job, including the amount of work, the facilities for performing it, light, temperature, tools, space, and ventilation, and the general appearance of the work place.

Interpersonal Relations - Herzberg broke down responses in this category into relations involving the respondent and his superiors, subordinates, and peers. He concedes that interpersonal relations play a role in almost all of the major categories, for example, in company policy and administration, personal recognition, and change in status; but responses listed under "interpersonal relations" were only described by the respondent as being an explicit interaction between himself and someone else in the firm. Implicit factors were listed elsewhere.

A further breakdown of the responses was made in terms of the nature of the interpersonal interaction. On the one hand, there are the "sociotechnical" interactions, which involve interaction in the performance of the job. On the other hand, there are interactions that take place during working hours and between others in the company, but which are called purely social interaction -- coffee breaks, lunches, and recreation.

Salary - This category includes all responses involving compensation. Virtually all the responses center on wage or salary increases or unfilled expectation of increases.

Status - Status, as a category, was restricted to responses involving some indication of status per se as a factor in the respondent's feeling about the job and mentioned specifically. For example, included here were such responses as "having a carpeted office, having a secretary, driving a company car, having access to private "upper echelon" dining facilities. Change in actual status - promotion, advancement - were categorized under "advancement," in which status and recognition are implicit. However, inferred status was not listed in this category; only those responses in which some appurtenance of status was mentioned were listed.

Job Security - The criterion for this category is objective signs of the presence or absence of job security, not feelings or security. Responses under job security include tenure and company stability or instability.

Personal Life - Factors in the respondent's personal life which affect the job were excluded from this category. Only those job factors that affect personal life were included, so long as these factors had an influence on the way the respondent felt about the job. For example, a response about the company's moving an employee to a location where he or his family were unhappy fell into this category.

Herzberg called the dissatisfiers hygiene factors, borrowing the medical and paramedical definition of hygiene as "preventive and environmental." They are also sometimes referred to as "maintenance" factors.

The satisfiers, which are all related to the job itself, were called motivators since over findings in the studies suggest that they are effective in motivating the employee to greater performance and productivity.

In establishing his motivation-hygiene theory, Herzberg draws heavily upon the hierarchy of needs developed by Maslow. Herzberg stresses that the factors which truly motivate the work are "growth" factors, or those that give the worker a sense of personal accomplishment through the challenge of the job itself. Real motivation is seen as resulting from the worker's involvement in accomplishing an interesting task and from his feeling of accomplishment alone, and not from the working conditions or environmental factors that are peripheral to the job. Clearly, there is a connection here with Maslow's theory of self-actualization, which states that the motivated person receives satisfaction from the sheer love of doing the job.

3. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor occupies a preeminent place among behavioral scientists. He wrote prolifically for journals and periodicals, but he produced only one complete book before his death in 1964. However, that book The Human Side of Enterprise, has probably been read by more managers and has influenced them more, than any other book in its field.

In The Human Side of Enterprise, McGregor's theme is that management is a profession. Moreover, he says, management demands a scientific base of research and application to make it a successful profession. Since the primary job of a manager is to manage other people in accomplishing the organization's objectives, McGregor argues that management must base its practices on the expertise and research data of the behavioral sciences if it is to be a real profession.

The starting point, for McGregor, is a set of fundamental beliefs or assumptions about what people are like. To illustrate two differing views of a human being, he developed two theoretical constructs on the nature of humans in relation to his work. He called one Theory X and the other Theory Y, names which he chose arbitrarily as neutral designations.

Theory X is identified as management's conventional conception of harnessing human energy to organizational requirements. Theory X assumptions include:

(1) The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.
(2) Because of the average human beings' dislike of work, one must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get one to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
(3) The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

These assumptions about human nature form, in very large measure, the rationale for management's approach to developing organization structures, policies, and practices, McGregor holds. He further states that the assumptions capsuled in Theory X have caused management to conceive of its mission in terms of two extreme positions, "hard" management and "soft" management, both of which he dismissed as neither wrong nor right, but as irrelevant.

Hard, or strong, management is characterized by its use of coercion and threat of punishment to obtain the behavior it desires from its people. Tight controls and close supervision are seen as natural accompaniments.

Soft, or weak, management is exemplified in management's conception of its job as one of satisfying people's demands, being extremely permissive, and generally trying to keep harmony in the organization.

McGregor based the construct of Theory Y on the accumulation of knowledge about behavior and motivation that has emerged within this century. Theory Y is the embodiment of a set of assumptions about people that are quite different from those of traditional management philosophy. These assumptions include:

(1) The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
(2) External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means of getting people to work toward the organization's objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control toward achieving objectives to which they are committed.
(3) Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement (esteem and self-actualization, for example).
(4) Average human beings learn, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
(5) Most people are capable of a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in solving organizational problems.
(6) Under the conditions of contemporary industrial life, the average person's intellectual potentialities are being utilized only partially.

Clearly, the assumptions in Theory Y are optimistic and humanistic. They also reflect, for McGregor, an unlimited potential for personal and organizational growth. While Theory X represents a static and somewhat pessimistic view of the nature of man, Theory Y emerges as dynamic and amenable to the changing nature of organizations and individuals.

If a person behaves toward work in the manner that Theory X assumes, McGregor sees the organization at fault, not the employee, because people are not basically lazy, indifferent, uncooperative, or uncreative. McGregor sees the "negative" behavior of Theory X as one fundamentally created by management through its excessive degree of control. If people behave in such a way as to validate the assumptions under Theory X, management uses the behavior (in a circular reasoning process) to rationalize ineffective performance. Under Theory Y, McGregor holds that management must be ingenious enough to tap the hidden potential of its work force through the development of the inherent need of people to be self- motivated and self-controlled.

Central to any discussion of McGregor's two theories is this matter of control. Under Theory X, control is externally imposed upon the individual by managements' supervision and atmosphere of constraint. Under Theory Y, the emphasis is on self-control or internally controlled employees. Theory Y implies that, within a climate of trust and respect, the employee is capable of putting forth willing effort and is capable of controlling his work habits. This point, carried a step further, leads to the principle of integration or the theory that the individual's needs (for meaningful work, personal freedom, esteem, and creative expression, implicit under Theory Y can best be met by directing his energies toward the organization's goals. The creation of this meshing assumes that the organization can be significantly more effective if it recognizes human needs and makes adjustments to meet these needs.

Douglas McGregor's analysis of management styles and beliefs about human nature in the mid-sixties highlights our need for the development of more Theory Y administrators and points out the "participatory", "motivational" value of such leadership.

4. Blake and Mouton's "Managerial Grid"

Meanwhile, Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid Analysis, based on a synthesis of the leadership style work conducted at Ohio State and elsewhere, clearly documents that the most effective, highly desirable, and ideal managers have a high concern for production united with high concern for people.

The Grid (Figure 3) developed by Drs. Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, and it is promoted by Scientific Methods, Incorporated, of Austin, Texas. The conceptual framework of the Grid grew out of Blake's belief that there existed an unnecessary dichotomy in the minds of most managers between concern for people problems and concern for production problems. Blake, formerly professor of psychology at the University of Texas and a trainer for National Training Laboratories, feels that the truly effective manager need to polarize these two concerns, though he claims that most managers do view concern for people and concern for production as separate, even opposing, factors in their jobs.

Blake holds that people and production concerns are complementary, rather than mutually exclusive, and that their integration in the management process - or most significantly, into the manager's job of getting results through people - would optimize both. The big question is "how?"

Key to an understanding of this ideal integration is the contention that every manager has a discernible style of managing, which is based on the degree of his concern for production and for his subordinate who turn out the product or services. At one end of the spectrum is the manager who is interested only in getting out production. At the other end is the manager who coddles his people at the cost of lost production.

Blake felt that there are managerial styles that fall somewhere in between these two extremes, so, in collaboration with his former student, Jane Mouton, he began to develop a graphic representation of these managerial styles and their identifying characteristics.

This scaling of various managerial styles became the conceptual framework - as depicted on a grid - on which Grid organization development is based, and it remains the "road map" or guideline for the program. The assumption is that once a manager can accurately place his own managerial style on the graph, he has a start toward examining its implications and identifying the personal and organizational changes needed to improve both himself as a manager and the climate of the organization in which he works.

The Grid itself is a chart with two nine-point scales. On the left side of the chart is a vertical scale representing concern for people, numbered from top to bottom and from one to nine. At the base of the chart is a horizontal scale representing concern for production, also numbered from one to nine, left to right. On both scales number one is low concern and number nine is high concern. The visual result is an actual grid.

Theoretically there are 81 possible positions on the Gird, representing as many facets and varieties of leadership style, but the instrument and the training for which it serves as a backdrop usually center around five points or managerial styles: 9,1 style; 1,9 style; 1,1 style, 5,5 style; and 9,9 style.

9,1

The manager who rates 9,1 is the caricature of the old-line autocrat with a maximum concern with production and an absolute minimum of concern for people. His conception of his job is to meet schedules, get production out, and tell people what to do. He is the embodiment of the "authoritarian personality" that is concerned with rank, status, and authority. He is the boss who plans and directs while his subordinates execute. Little concern is given to human relationships or interactions, and little if any effort is expended in developing subordinates or in communicating to them the reasons for instructions or procedural change. The managerial style represented by 9,1 is called "task management" by Blake.

1,9

The polar extreme of 9,1 style is "country club management." The 1,9 manager is concerned with a happy and harmonious work force, even though the company's need for products or services suffers. This attitude is consistent with the belief that production requirements are contrary to the needs of people. An underlying assumption of 1,9 style is that happy workers will produce, to quote Blake, "like contented cows." Companies in which 1,9 is prevalent try to create a feeling that everyone is part of one big happy family; they stress the importance of pleasant surroundings and congenial co-workers, and of togetherness through picnics and other company-sponsored recreational activities, and they play down bad news in company house organs. The 1,9 manager is concerned with production but only to the extent that it doesn't pressure people.

1,1

At the lower left corner of the Grid, 1,1 style, or "impoverished management," is the manager who is "lost among his people," rather than acting as a leader. The 1,1 manager has a minimum of concern for both production

and people; therefore he doesn't manage at all. Instead he tries not to rock the boat by accomplishing just enough to get by. He exercises his authority only enough to avoid pressure from above. The 1,1 manager wants to be present in the organization but not seen; he puts in his time, waits for retirement, and hopes that nobody will notice him. His prime motivation is survival.

5,5

At the very middle of the Grid, 5,5 style management represents a moderate concern for people, coupled with a moderate concern for production. A 5,5 manager may push for production and at the same time consider the people who must perform the work. But he strives to strike a compromise, with the result that neither concern for people nor concern for production isoptimal. The 5,5 style is called "middle-of-the-road" management. The manager who practices this style characteristically functions well in highly bureaucratic organizations in which rules and regulations and traditions have become ends in themselves. He sees that they are administered properly. In his attempts to maintain a balance, he may conceive of his personal management style as "firm but fair"; he believes in pushing people enough to get acceptable production, but he yields enough to maintain morale. The result may be a pattern of mediocrity. He is concerned with people, but only as their problems have some bearing upon established procedures within the organizations.

9,9

At the upper right corner of the Grid, 9,9 style, or "team management," integrates a maximum concern for production with a maximum concern for people. The goal of Managerial Grid training is to produce 9,9 managers. Grid theory views concern for production and concern for people as interdependent. It posits that the needs of people and the needs of the organization are not inherently in conflict. It assumes that people want to be productive and involved in their work, and that this productive involvement can be accomplished through the creation of an organizational climate that encourages creativity and participation. Production results from the integration of task and human requirements. The 9,9 manager does not abdicate his superior organizational position, but he regards his job as that of coach, advisor, and consultant. In his coaching role (which is not unlike that of the coach of a sports team) he makes decisions and exercises leadership, but he cannot be the whole team.

Grid terminology refers mainly to these five "pure" managerial styles; however, there is a sixth style that Blake identifies as a common one: "statistical 5,5." The "statistical 5,5" manager operates all over the Grid and treats each person he encounters differently, so his managerial style averages 5,5.

This brief review leaves us with little doubt that we have substantial behavioral science knowledge which, if appropriately applied in education, could help us to create more effective organizations in these crucial times of an increasing thrust for school improvement.

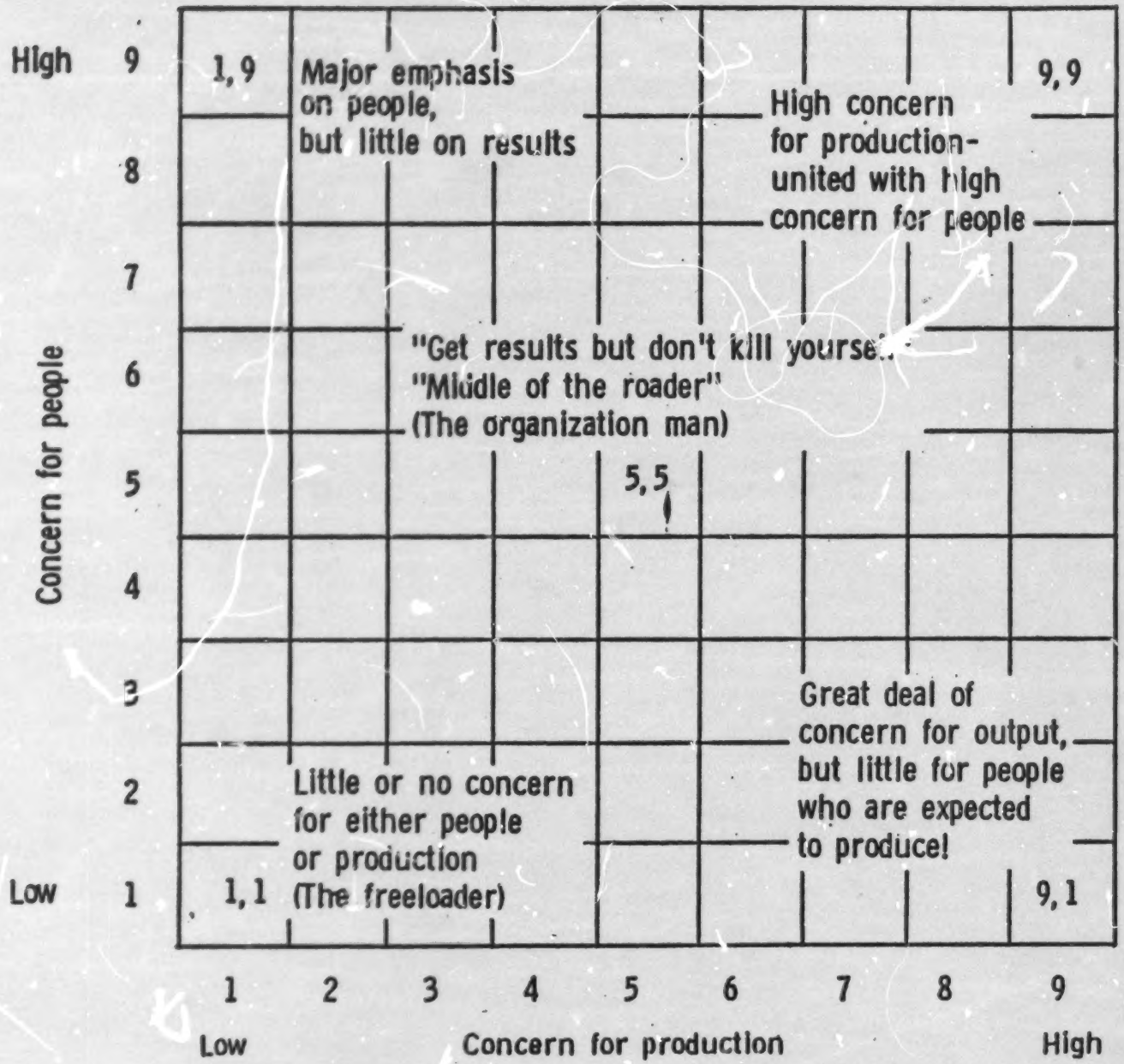

High
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
Low
1
Concern for people
1,9
Major emphasis on people, but little on results
9,9
High concern for production- united with high concern for people
"Get results but don't kill yourself"
"Middle of the roader"
(The organization man)
5,5
Great deal of concern for output, but little for people who are expected to produce!
Little or no concern for either people or production
(The freeloader)
1,1
9,1
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
Low
Concern for production
High

Figure No. 3

SYSTEMATIC PROBLEM SOLVING

Keeping in mind the needs and goals of organizations coupled with what individuals seek while working in organizations (the behavioral science research and concepts just reviewed), let us now take a more specific look at problem solving.

There are nine distinct, critical steps in problem solving which need to be reviewed before adopting procedures for moving toward school improvement.

Step 1 - Define the Problem Area

Define the problem to be addressed as specifically as possible.

Step 2 - Identifying the Present Level

Using any available data, define the present level of accomplishment or the present situation.

Step 3 - Identifying the Desired Level

Reviewing the data and using staff knowledge, background, and skills, identify the "desired" level of accomplishment for this problem.

Step 4 - Re-evaluate the Problem

Re-evaluate the discrepancy between the "present" and "desired" levels to determine if this problem, as compared to the many which the school may have, requires further investigation and need for addressing and developing an action plan for improvement and correction. It is at this point in problem solving that determining a "proceed" or "not proceed" mode is critical.

Step 5 - Identify the "possible" causes that have led to the present situation

Once the problem has been defined, its intensity has been analyzed, and the determination to proceed has been made, the first (or next) step is to "brainstorm" all the possible causes for the condition (see Figure 4: "Brainstorming Rules"). It is important to focus on causes before solutions because different causes require different solutions. It is a process of broadening and expanding ideas. Avoid closure and entertain all possibilities even though all the data to substantiate the possible cause may not be currently available.

Rules For Effective Brainstorming

1) No negative reactions to comments allowed. A negative reaction may stop the next idea from being expressed.

2) Freewheeling is welcome. Wild ideas are fine. You will be able to be critical about ideas later.

3) Quantity is the main thing. Don't worry about quality at this point.

4) Set a short time-limit. Three to five minutes is about as much time as the mind can stay intensely creative in a group.

5) Assign a recorder, but don't let the recording slow down the thoughts. Just jot down a phrase or key word and move on.

Figure No. 4

Step 6 - Select those causes which seem "most likely"

Now comes the process of convergent thinking. It is the process of narrowing or reducing the possibilities of the "most likely". The goal is to come to agreement on the most likely causes (see Figure 5: "Guidelines for Coming to Consensus").

Guidelines For Coming To Consensus

1) Move to a higher level of generality. General ideas unite, specifics divide.

2) Paraphrase. Many times the problem in reaching consensus is a problem of poor communication. Use paraphrasing to check whether or not the same message is being heard as was being sent.

3) Define. Poor communication can also be clarified if everyone has the same meaning for the words used.

4) Clarify the criteria. Agree to what the final statement should accomplish. Then develop the final statement.

5) Go on and come back later. Sometimes another item will clear away the conflict on the present item.

6) Agree to disagree. For now, agree that agreement cannot be reached and agree to a time to meet again.

Figure No. 5

Step 7 - Identify some possible solutions

Now identify some "possible" solutions for each possible "most likely" cause of the problem. Once you have done this list the possible solutions on your evaluating solutions worksheet (see Figure 6: "Evaluating Proposed Solutions to the Most Likely Causes of a Problem").

Step 8 - Evaluate each of these solutions

Now that you have identified "most likely" causes to the problem and some possible solutions for each cause have been identified, solutions can be identified according to four common criteria:

(a) contribution to the accomplishment of the objective
(b) cost
(c) feasibility
(d) side effects

An ideal solution to a problem is one which has:

(a) high contribution to the accomplishment of the objective
(b) low cost to do it
(c) high feasibility that it can be done
(d) favorable side effects without creating additional problems

Step 9 - Formulate a specific detailed plan of action

After proceeding through these eight steps, an action plan can be formulated for correcting or improving upon the current situation.

An action plan requires the following:

(a) a listing of activities to carry out the objectives of the solution (School Improvement Goal)
(b) a listing of specific tasks that must be undertaken to accomplish the activities within a specified time frame
(c) a listing of the persons to be involved and responsible for completing the tasks and activities.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Problem-analysis is a process for working on organizational change. Because of this, it is important to note that there are basically two types of change in most organizations - unplanned and planned. Unplanned change tends to be uncontrollable, creative, and adjustment oriented. Planned change is controllable, deliberate (proactive), usually cooperative and improvement oriented.

Change is generally more difficult in larger, older, and more successful organizations due to the numbers of people who must be involved, tradition, "set-in-our-ways" attitudes, and complacency or pride.

As planned change is attempted, it is possible that disagreement or maybe even conflict among staff members will be experienced. Disagreement usually occurs over four major areas:

(a) Facts (the situation or problem - what really is it?)
(b) Methods (What's the best way to achieve the goals)
(c) Goals (What do we really want? How we would like things to be)
(d) Values (What are our long-term goals and qualities that we want to support)

It is important to know that the facts are generally the easiest to resolve after disagreement, while the values are generally the most difficult to settle on.

When conflict over these areas is experienced - due to our behavioral tendencies people tend to follow or use certain patterns or strategies for managing conflict. It is therefore important to realize what these patterns are and learn how to deal with them so conflict during the change process can be better managed.

Since people bring their individual attitudes, values, perceptions and goals to each situation, conflict is often inevitable. Conflict itself is neither positive nor negative. When managed properly, however, it can be productive for the person engaged in the conflict and for the organization. There are at least five basic ways of dealing with conflict. Most people tend to adopt only one of these ways, rarely using the others. But to manage conflict effectively, an understanding of all of them is needed. Then, the one most appropriate to the situation can be chosen.

Five Basic Ways of Dealing with Conflict

Competition: Asserting your position over the other person's
Accommodation: Meeting the other person's needs and not asserting your own.
Avoidance: Postponing the conflict until you are ready to deal with it.
Compromise: Giving partial satisfaction to both parties.
Collaboration: An attempt to fully satisfy each party.

Each technique has advantages and disadvantages as follows:

1. Competition

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Useful when quick action is required	• Stops exploration of new approaches
• Protects against those who take advantage of non-competitive behavior	• One's goals may be achieved at the expense of others
	• Win/lose
	• Little commitment
	• Temporary solution

This strategy is high in assertiveness (dominance) and low in cooperativeness (non-supportive). It is a win/lose mode of operation.

2. Avoidance

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Useful when risk outweighs gains	• Restricts input
• Postpones tension	• Temporary solution
• Useful when others can solve the problem more effectively	
• Useful to postpone action until more information surfaces	

This strategy is low in assertiveness (submissive) and low in cooperativeness (non-supportive). It is a withdrawal mode of operation.

3. Collaboration

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Mutual exploration of new approaches	• Can be time consuming
• Mutual resolution	• Requires participation from others
• Gains commitment	
• Win/win	
• Permanent solution	

This strategy is high in assertiveness (dominance) and high in cooperativeness (supportive). It is a win/win mode of operation.

4. Accommodation

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Useful to preserve harmony	• Sacrifices your own point of view
• Avoids disruption	• Limits creative resolution
• Prevents competition	• Win/lose
• Useful when issues are not important to you	

This strategy is low in assertiveness (submissive) and high in cooperativeness (supportive). It is a lose/yield mode of operation.

5. Compromising

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Each participant shares in some degree of winning and losing	• You need to give some to get some
• Use when issue is not important enough to either party	• Commitment may be only temporary
• Takes less time to accomplish	

This strategy is neither strongly assertive or cooperative. It is frequently a lose/lose mode of operation.

As mentioned earlier, conflict is neither positive nor negative, but it does contain characteristics of both. When <u>not controlled</u> conflict can:

(1) Divert energy
(2) Destroy morale
(3) Polarize individuals and groups
(4) Deepen differences
(5) Obstruct cooperative action
(6) Produce irresponsible behavior
(7) Create suspicion and distrust
(8) Decrease productivity

When conflict <u>is controlled</u>, it can:

(1) Open up an issue in a confronting manner
(2) Develop clarification of an issue
(3) Improve problem-solving
(4) Increase involvement
(5) Provide for growth
(6) Strengthen a relationship when creatively resolved
(7) Increase productivity
(8) Provide more spontaneity in communication

Thus, when dealing with conflict during a problem solving situation, to make conflict positive:

(1) Attempt to depersonalize the conflict and focus on the problem
(2) Attempt to see the goals, opinions, attitudes, and feelings of all parties as legitimate, acceptible, and constructive
(3) Realize that conflict resolution can be constructive to the quality of human relationships if worked through in a supporting/trusting climate

Film - "Managing Conflict"
Available Through School Effectiveness Program
Minnesota Department of Education

How do you deal with conflict? In the film "Managing Conflict: How to Make Conflict Work for You", Dr. Marion Wood, Professor of Organizational Communication, explores some basic ways of dealing with conflict and demonstrates how conflict, if managed poorly, can actually work for you. The film and its supporting material is designed to help the audience/participants recognize several strategies for dealing with conflict in order to help them select the most appropriate strategy for the situation.

> Take 15 minutes to have participants complete the "Participant Worksheet for the film, Managing Conflict". Have them score the worksheet after the viewing of the film for they will understand the five basic ways to dealing with conflict better after viewing the film.

After viewing the film, ask participants to complete the scoring of their questionnaires by counting the number of items circled in each of the five columns and record the totals. Multiply each score by 10 and chart the scores on the graph. The graph will show which strategies they tend to use in managing conflict, namely: competition, accommodation, avoidance, compromise, and collaboration.

Now discuss the "Managing Conflict" model. Define each technique for managing conflict and explain the advantages and disadvantages of each.

PARTICIPANT WORKSHEETS

Activity No. 1

Directions: Before viewing the film MANAGING CONFLICT, please complete Activity No. 1. Circle T (true) or F (false) to indicate which of the following statements best describes how you would respond in each of these situations. Although you may not agree with either choice, you must select either true (T) or false (F).

	1	2	3	4	5
1. When there is a difference of opnion, I would rather explore our differences than try to convince the other person that I am right and he/she is wrong.	F				T
2. When there is a difference of opinion, I would rather disagree openly and explore our differences than agree with the other point of view simply to have someone agree with my point of view.				F	T
3. When asked to perform an unpleasant task, I would rather postpone the task indefinitely than follow orders without discussion.		F	T		
4. When there is a difference of opinion, I would rather try to win the other person over, than withdraw from the conversation.	T		F		
5. Sometimes it's easier to agree without discussion than to avoid making any comment on a controversial subject.		T	F		
6. During a disagreement, I would rather admit that I may be half wrong than to try to convince the other person that I am 100% right.	F			T	
7. When there is a difference of opinion, I would rather give in totally than try to change the other person's opinion.	F		T		
8. I would rather postpone a potential disagreement than explore our different points of view.			T		F

	1	2	3	4	5
9. During a disagreement, I would rather meet the person half way than give in totally.		F		T	
10. Sometimes it is easier to agree without discussion than to try to convince the other person I'm right.	F	T			
11. During a disagreement, I would rather admit that I am half wrong than withdraw from the conversation.			F	T	
12. When asked to perform an unpleasant task, I would rather postpone it indefinitely than attempt to convince someone else to do the task.	F		T		
13. During a disagreement, I would rather try to win the other person over than to split our differences.	T			F	
14 When there is a difference of opinion, I would rather explore our differences and reach a mutually satisfactory solution than withdraw from the conversation.			F		T
15. When asked to perform an unpleasant task, I would rather postpone the task indefinitely than discuss my feelings and attempt to find a solution we both can agree on.			T		F
16. During a difference of opinion, I would rather try to convince the other person that I am right than explore our differences.	T				F
17. When there is a difference of opinion, I would rather explore our differences than give in without discussion.		F			T
18. During a disagreement I would rather admit that I am half wrong than explore our differences.				T	F

	1	2	3	4	5
19. Sometimes it is easier to agree without discussion than give up half of what I believe to reach an agreement.		T		F	
20. When there is a difference of opinion, I would rather explore our differences than give in without discussion.		F			T
21. During a difference of opinion, I would rather try to win the discussion than sacrifice my point of view by not discussing it.	T	F			
22. When asked to perform an unpleasant task, I would rather postpone it indefinitely than follow orders without discussion.		F	T		
23. During a disagreement, I would rather try to find a solution that satisfies both of us than to let the other person find a solution without my help.		F			T
24. During a disagreement, I would rather admit that I'm half wrong than explore our differences.				T	F
25. During a disagreement, I would rather try to win the other person over than give in totally.	T	F			
26. When asked to perform an unpleasant task, I would rather agree to perform half the task than to find a solution which is mutually satisfactory.				T	F

PARTICIPANT WORKSHEETS

Activity No. 2

After viewing the film, please score your answers from Activity No. 1.

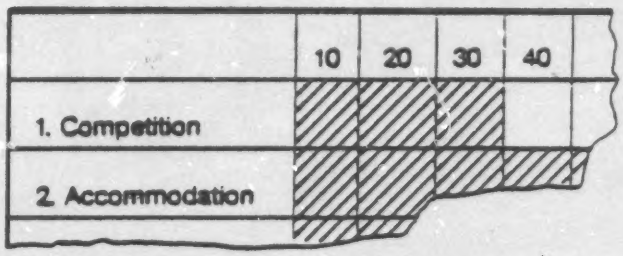
Scoring Instructions

1. Count the number of items circled in each of the five columns. Record your totals in the boxes shown below:

1	2	3	4	5

2. Multiply each score by 10. Chart your score on the graph shown below. Darken in the space which represents your score in each of the five columns.

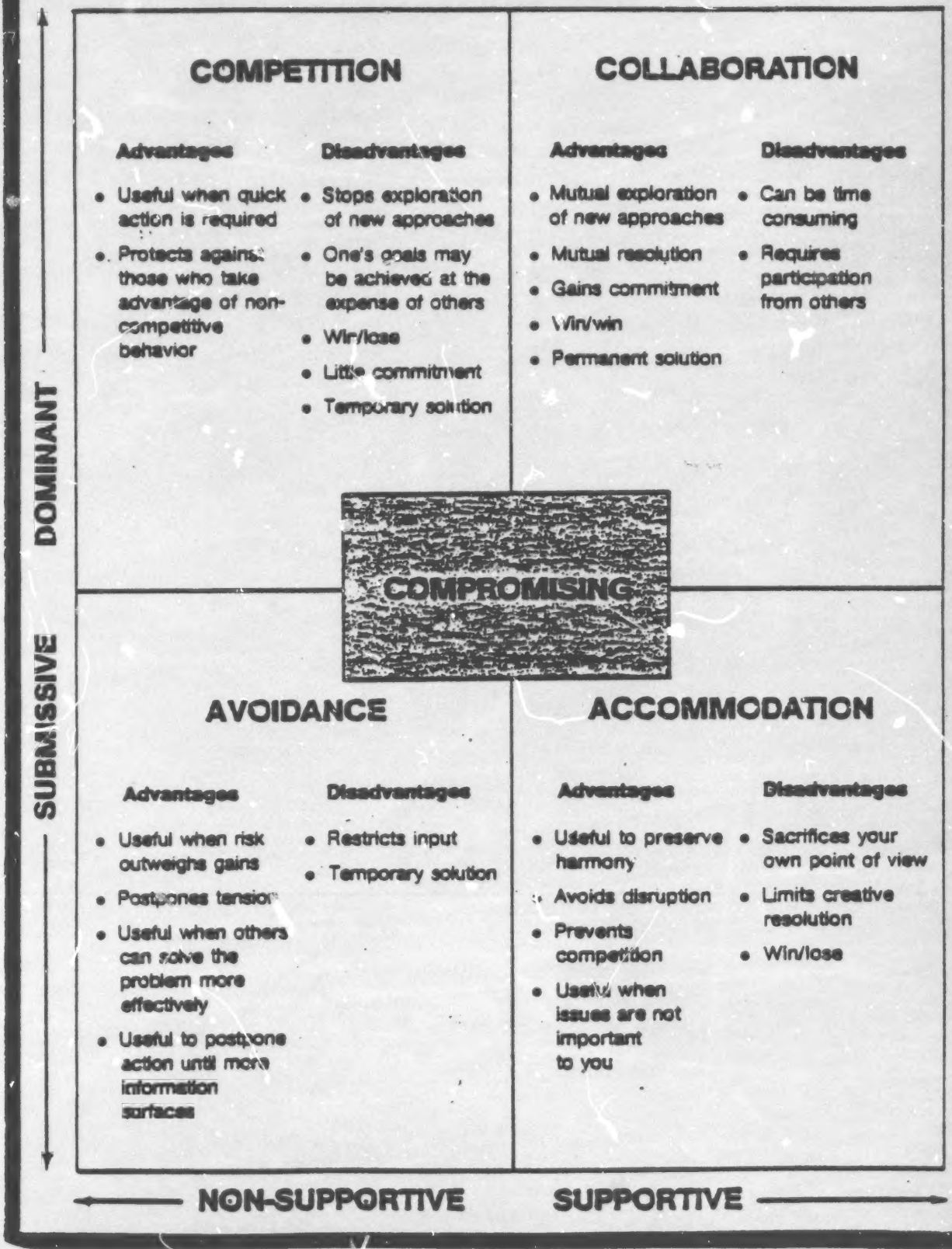
Example:



	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
1. Competition												
2. Accommodation												
3. Avoidance												
4. Compromise												
5. Collaboration												

Now you have an approximate indication of your personal style of managing conflict. On the next page check the advantages and disadvantages of the strategies you seem to use most often.

Managing Conflict Model



SYSTEMATIC PROBLEM SOLVING

EVALUATING PROPOSED SOLUTIONS TO THE MOST LIKELY CAUSES OF A PROBLEM

PROPOSED SOLUTIONS	CONTRIBUTION TO OBJECTIVES ACCOMPLISHMENT	COST	FEASIBILITY	SIDE EFFECTS (DESIRABLE OR UNDESIRABLE?)
THE IDEAL SOLUTION	HIGH	LOW	HIGH	FAVORABLE OR NONE
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				

(27)